

# Cervical Cancer Screening Intention Among Health Care Professionals Working at the College of Health Sciences of Addis Ababa University: Applying Psychometrically Tested Health Belief Model Informed b

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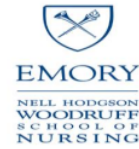
**Submission date:** 01-Oct-2024 11:43AM (UTC+0300)  
by Semarya Berhe

**Submission ID:** 2471373376

**File name:** Semarya\_Berhe\_Lemlem\_Dissertation.pdf (4.11M)

**Word count:** 71882

**Character count:** 394526



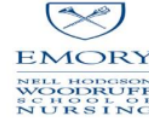
**CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING INTENTION AMONG  
HEALTH CARE PROFESSIONALS WORKING AT THE  
COLLEGE OF HEALTH SCIENCES OF ADDISABABA  
UNIVERSITY: APPLYING PSYCHOMETRICALLY TESTED  
HEALTH BELIEF MODEL INFORMED BY THE TRANS-  
THEORETICAL MODEL: 2020**

**Semarya Berhe Lemlem**



**Dissertation for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Nursing Addis  
Ababa University-Emory University PhD Collaboration Program, Addis  
Ababa, Ethiopia**

**July, 2024**



**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

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HEALTH BELIEF MODEL INFORMED BY THE TRANS-THEORETICAL MODEL**

**A dissertation submitted to the School of Graduate studies of Addis Ababa University in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in  
Nursing**

**July, 2024**

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College of Health Sciences of Addis Ababa University: Applying Psychometrically Tested  
Health Belief Model Informed by the Trans-Theoretical Model**

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## **Acknowledgments**

First and foremost, I am grateful to Emory University, <sup>3</sup> Nell Hodgson Woodruff School of Nursing, and Addis Ababa University, School of Nursing and Midwifery for the support to pursue the PhD program in Nursing.

A great deal of gratitude is expressed to my advisors, Rebecca A Gary, Katherine A Yeager, Melinda K Higgins and Mitike Molla. I have benefitted immensely from your expertise in the field of health research and your tireless and constructive contributions throughout the work of this dissertation and direct my path.

My appreciation is extended to Deborah Bruner for her productive and insightful suggestions to mature my work. And Leul Deribe for his unreserved assistance.

SIDA Female researcher's scholarship for the grant awarded which has an immense contribution in minimizing the financial constraint.

I am also very grateful for study participants and data collectors.

I would like to express my very profound gratitude to my parents, my beloved companion and my precious doves (beautiful daughters and son) and my brothers for providing me with unflinching support and continuous encouragement throughout my life, years of study and through the process of researching and writing this dissertation. This accomplishment would not have been possible without them. Thank you.

Last but not the least; I would like to thank my friends and colleagues for supporting me spiritually throughout writing this dissertation.

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## Abbreviations

<b>AAU</b>	Addis Ababa University
<b>AOR</b>	Adjusted Odds Ratio
<b>AUC</b>	Area under curve
<b>CCS</b>	Cervical Cancer Screening
<b>COR</b>	Crude Odds Ratio
<b>EDHS</b>	Ethiopian Demographic Health Survey
<b>HBM</b>	Health Belief Model
<b>HCP</b>	Health care professionals
<b>HPV</b>	Human Papilloma virus
<b>LMICs</b>	Low- and Middle-Income Countries
<b>OR</b>	Odds Ratio
<b>PAF</b>	Principal Axis Factoring
<b>PAP</b>	Papanicolaou Smear Test
<b>ROC</b>	Receiving operating characteristics
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
<b>SSA</b>	Sub Sharan Africa
<b>STD</b>	Sexually transmitted disease
<b>STI</b>	Sexually transmitted infections
<b>TNM</b>	Trans- theoretical model
<b>TASH</b>	Tikur Anbessa Specialized Hospital
<b>USA</b>	United States of America
<b>VIA</b>	Visual Inspection with Acetic Acid
<b>WHO</b>	World Health Organization

## Abstract

**Background:** Screening for cervical cancer at least once between the ages of 30-40, lowers the risk of cervical cancer in women by 25–36%. In Ethiopia, over 27 million women are at risk for cervical cancer yet cervical screening occurs in less than 1 % of women. Even when cervical cancer (CC) screening is available in LMICs free of charge various studies have shown, that women eligible for screening have an even lower participation rate. Understanding of the knowledge and health beliefs that influence CC screening and participation behaviors among women, are essential in order to increase demand for screening of CC. Several theoretical perspectives could be used to explore the determinants of the healthcare professionals' behaviors to this end. Some behaviors and beliefs may have a significant impact on the females' decision to take preventive actions against cervical cancer. It is well documented that intention to cervical cancer screening predicts actual attendance however as intention is volatile with time, we used the Trans-Theoretical Model (TTM) to determine the stages of change and intention of cervical cancer screening. Evidence supports that Health Belief Model (HBM) explains and predicts certain health behaviors, including CC screening. Healthcare providers can serve as role models to facilitate a supportive environment that encourages women to utilize screening for cervical cancer. An understanding of factors that predict cervical cancer screening behaviors may contribute to the development of more effective screening. Studies using the Health Belief Model (HBM) to explain women's screening behaviors have been inconsistent and psychometric properties of the modified health belief model tool was not validated among population under study. In addition, in Ethiopia studies evaluating the predictability of the HBM towards intention to screen for cervical cancer are very limited.

**Objective:** This study aims to test psychometric properties of the HBM, assess the intention of screening with visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) and its determinants among female healthcare professionals (HCPs). The conceptual frame work guiding the study are TTM and HBM to determine the intention to screen for cervical cancer.

**Method:** We conducted a cross-sectional study in Addis Ababa Ethiopia at the College of Health Sciences (CHS), Addis Ababa University (AAU). Health care professionals aged 30 and above years at AAU-CHS were the study population. For cervical cancer to develop in a woman less than 30 years of age is rare and the Federal Ministry of Health of Ethiopia supports implementing VIA testing starting age 30. A sample size of 210 health care professionals was used for psychometric testing of the modified HBM scale. A larger sample of 484 participants were enrolled to examine the intention of cervical cancer screening and factors associated with

screening behavior using the trans-theoretical model and HBM predictability of intention among health care professionals working at the CHS, AAU. The analysis included factor analysis, logistic regression and ROC curve analysis.

**Result:** A total of 194 female health care professionals, with mean age  $30\pm 4.34$  were used for the final analysis in psychometric testing of the 42 items of the HBM. Twelve items removed with  $\leq 0.5$  loading. The retained 30 items were loaded into 6 factors; benefits of VIA, perceived seriousness of CC, barrier (fear of negative outcome), self-efficacy, susceptibility to CC, and barriers (health system delivery) explained 65% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha for the total instrument was 0.8 and reliability for the 6 subscales ranged 0.76–0.92. Composite reliability and AVE indicated good internal consistency and convergent validity. CFA identified 6 additional items to be removed with high residual covariance. The final 24 items of the modified HBM had an acceptable model fit (GFI= 0.861, AGFI= 0.823, CFI= 0.937, RMSEA=0.059). Intention of health care professionals to participate in cervical cancer screening was 44.1%. Over half 52% of the participants had poor knowledge of cervical cancer and screening. Regarding the TTM stages of change, 46.5% participants indicated being at the pre-contemplation phase suggesting they never had a VIA screen and had no intention being screened within the next six months. In the final logistic regression model age; in the 30-34- and 35-39-years age ( $p<0.05$ ), participants who took care of patient with cervical cancer ( $p<0.01$ ), being screened in the past three years ( $p<0.01$ ) and good and moderate knowledge ( $p<0.05$ ) had statistically significant association with CC screening. Perceived benefit, barrier to fear of negative outcome, barrier to health delivery, perceived seriousness and self-efficacy were significantly associated with intention to screen for cervical cancer with p-value  $<0.05$ . The ability of the HBM model to predict intention to screen for cervical cancer was acceptable (AUC 0.742) for perceived seriousness and poor identifying ability for perceived benefit and self-efficacy (AUC of 0.579 and 0.697) respectively. In addition, the ability of the model to predict having no intention to screen for cervical cancer were acceptable for perceived barrier to fear of negative outcomes and perceived barrier to health delivery with AUC of 0.745 and 0.715 respectively.

**Conclusion and recommendation:** The findings revealed that the modified HBM for CC and VIA with 24 items had adequate psychometric properties; most of the participants were at the pre-contemplation phase and the limited knowledge among female health care professionals had about cervical cancer screening is a concern and merits further investigation on the reasons for the poor knowledge. This study supports the use of constructs of the modified HBM for predicting intention to screen for cervical cancer with VIA among female HCPs in Ethiopia. Our finding suggests the validated tool may be used by Ethiopian health care professionals for

research or clinical purposes. To support external validity of the updated 24 items tool is suggested to further study in different populations in Ethiopia that may contribute to the development of targeted interventions to promote screening uptake in LMICs. Intervening on the factors that affect intention for screening is vital to reduce barriers to cervical screening among female HCPs as well the broader female population in Ethiopia. And providing cancer screening guidelines to all HCPs regardless of their specialty could be key factor to lessen the burden of cervical cancer.

**Key words:** Psychometric, Cervical cancer screening, Intention, Female Health care professionals, Health Belief Model, Trans-theoretical model, Visual inspection with acetic acid, Ethiopia

## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The global burden of cervical cancer is projected to continue to increase, rising to nearly 700,000 cases and 400,000 deaths by 2030, with analogous increases anticipated in future years. This represents a 21% increase in the number of cases and a 27% increase in the number of deaths over just the 12-year period. Most of these increases will be in women in low and middle income countries (LMICs), reflecting the severity of the global divide in cervical cancer morbidity and mortality (1, 2) . In total, 84% of the new cases and between 87% and 90% of the deaths occur in LMICs (3).

Cervical cancer is the third most common cancer among women in 45 countries around the world, and it contributes to 28% of deaths among women worldwide, many of which are in Africa (4, 5). Mortality caused by cervical cancer in Africa is disproportionately higher. In comparison, the mortality rates in the developed world where screening programs run successfully remain below 5 per 100,000 women. On average cervical cancer screening coverage in developing countries is 19% compared to 63% in developed countries; rates as low as 1% or less were seen in countries such as Bangladesh, Ethiopia, and Myanmar (6). Detecting cervical cancer in its earlier stages is life-saving. For instance, cervical cancer diagnosed at an early stage has a 5-year survival rate of 92% (7).The average, survival rates in Sub Saharan Africa are 21% compared to 70% in the USA and 66% in Europe(8).Despite this, in Ethiopia 27.19 million women are at risk of developing the disease with less than 1% women age 18-69 years are screened every 3 years (9, 10).

Screening is the principal preventive measure used to reduce the burden of cervical cancer (11). Regular screening is the single most important public health strategy to reduce cervical cancer incidence and subsequent mortality; doing regular screening (no more than once every three to five years) can prevent the disease in 45% in women 30 years of age and up to 75 % among women in their 50s and 60s.<sup>4</sup>Early detection can greatly increase the chance of successful treatment resulting in an approximately 40% reduction in incidence and mortality associated with late stage or invasive cancer (12). Despite the importance of cervical screening, in Ethiopia the overall coverage of cervical cancer screening was found to be 0.8% and receive the recommended screening every 3 years according to the Information Centre on Human Papilloma Virus (HPV) and Cancer, 2017. Even if screening was widely available research to

date indicates that the availability of screening services alone is inadequate to increase screening participation (13-15).

Although the importance and effectiveness of cervical cancer prevention through screening has been demonstrated, the underlying reasons to explain why the majority of women are not utilizing available screening services have not been well described. Studies have shown that very few women in sub-Saharan Africa and LMICs are screened for cervical cancer. Low levels of awareness and poor knowledge coupled with a lack of available cervical cancer screening services are likely responsible for the very small number of women being screened (16).

Prior research has identified some of the influencing factors of perceptions like diverse demographic, socio psychological, and structural variables that may contribute to health behaviors, in seeking or avoiding cervical cancer screening (17) . Much of the work associated with cancer screening has been informed by the Health Belief Model (HBM) which is formulated on the belief that one's perception of a health threat can change behavior. The HBM focuses on preventing illness occurrence by encouraging health behaviors that avoid disease (18).

While the HBM has demonstrated the domains described above to be key factors predicting health actions, the trans-theoretical model (TTM) of behavior change will be used to address the stages of readiness to practice regular screening as the complex nature of decision-making process surrounding cervical cancer screening in adopting change of behavior (19).

The major factors associated with the lack of cervical cancer screening at the individual level include inadequate knowledge about the disease process, and access to cervical cancer screening. In addition, uncertainty about the purpose of cervical cancer screening, negative attitudes towards the procedure, lack of awareness of available screening methods and anxiety related to screening results are also major contributing factors (20-23).

The individual risk may also be based on personal characteristics or behaviors; being sexually active and have higher numbers of sexual partners (24). Additionally, it has been reported that women being poorly informed about cervical cancer and the associated risk factors, are unclear about the purpose of cervical cancer screening, and hold negative or inaccurate beliefs or attitudes about cervical cancer screening (25). Despite its proven importance, rates of attendance for screening programs vary widely, and are considerably low. The low prevalence of early cervical cancer screening and limited access to its treatments largely attributed to differences in diagnosis and subsequent mortality from the disease among high and low-income

countries. For instance; the screening uptake for cervical cancer in the three developing regions was only 6%, 12%, and 8.3% in South Africa, Bhutan, and Nigeria respectively (26) and in Ethiopia where, less than 1% of age eligible women receive effective screening for cervical cancer and 90% of women have never had a pelvic examination (27).

### Purpose of the study

In an attempt to implement a cervical cancer prevention and control program in Ethiopia, the Federal Ministry of Health has developed cervical cancer prevention and control guidelines. The main goal of this guideline is to provide healthcare providers, partners and other stakeholders involved in the prevention and control of cervical cancer in Ethiopia with a standardized Cervical Cancer Prevention and Control Health Service Delivery Directive (28).

Ethiopia adopted the WHO recommendation and recommended that women begin cervical cancer screening at the age of 30 and above or three years past coitarche, and continuing screening at least once every three years. Effective, low resource screenings and treatment methods are recommended in the guideline including the “see and treat” screening strategy using VIA as the primary screening method and cryotherapy as a treatment option (4).

Researchers have reported that young women in LMICs are poorly informed about cervical cancer, unclear about the purpose of cervical cancer screening, and hold negative or inaccurate beliefs or attitudes about screening tests. Diverse demographic, psychosocial, and health beliefs may influence cervical screening perceptions and, thus, indirectly influence health-related behavior (17).

In order to improve screening participation among women, a better understanding of their knowledge, attitudes and health beliefs, which influence cervical cancer screening and participation behavior, is essential. The Health Belief Model (HBM) contains several primary concepts that predict why people will take action to prevent, screen for, or to control illness conditions (17).

There is considerable empirical support for the HBM to explain and predict certain health behaviors, particularly cancer screening (29). For behavior change to occur such as obtaining cervical cancer screening, people must feel threatened by their current behavioral patterns (perceived susceptibility and severity) and believe that change of a specific type of behavior will result in a valued outcome at an acceptable cost (perceived benefit). They also must feel competent (self-efficacious) to overcome perceived barriers to take action (17). And trans-theoretical model (TTM) of behavior change will be used to address the stages of readiness to

practice regular screening as the complex nature of decision-making process surrounding cervical cancer screening in adopting change of behavior (19).

One of the most important limitations in both descriptive and intervention research regarding HBM has been variability in the measurement of the central HBM constructs. Construct definitions need to be consistent with HBM theory as originally conceptualized, and measures need to be specific to the behavior being addressed and relevant to the population among whom they will be used (17).

International and domestic studies have used or modified Champion's HBM Scales to assess breast cancer screening behaviors, and the existing scales demonstrated adequate reliability with Cronbach coefficients ranging from 0.70 to 0.90. Modifying the Champions HBM scales used for breast cancer, a cervical cancer screening employing the same constructs also demonstrated adequate internal consistency (30).

Reliability varies by population and little is known about the scale's applicability to health care professional. A cervical screening behavior among health care professionals working at College of Health Sciences in Ethiopia using HBM has not received attention in previous research. The belief and action of screening among health care professionals guided by the HBM and the TTM also have not been previously investigated. Hence researching the belief, looking into preexisting factors towards their belief and intention of screening and determining predictive ability for cervical screening among female health care professionals at Addis Ababa University College of Health Sciences is of a great importance and will help bridge the gap for a better understanding for the low cervical screening participation and potentially lessen morbidity and mortality. In addition, for an effective screening program for CC, it is essential to understand the perceptions and beliefs of the population especially among healthcare professionals since they are at the forefront of providing health-related information.

#### **RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

Programs emphasizing the benefits of screening have been shown to positively influence women's cancer screening behavior and are needed to increase public awareness. The World Health Organization recommends the implementation of cost-effective and affordable interventions to address cervical cancer, stressing early detection as the cornerstone strategy for controlling cervical cancer and improving health outcomes and survival (31).

Ethiopia has put in place a strategic goal to reduce cancer incidence and mortality by 15% by 2020. Because of the burden and high mortality, cervical cancer is considered priority cancer for intervention. This ambitious plan aimed to reach 50% of the population with prevention

awareness information, 80% coverage of each year's target cohort of girls aged 9 to 13 with vaccination against HPV, reduce the exposure to HPV infections, 80% coverage of VIA to detect precancerous cervical lesions among non-symptomatic women aged 30–49 and increase awareness to 50% among the general population and health care providers of early signs and symptoms and opportunities for early detection of cervical cancer (32, 33)

While Ethiopia is working to make cervical cancer screening (CCS) available, improvement in availability alone will not be sufficient to result in increased screening uptake. For that, we need to understand and address the multifaceted health beliefs that are likely to influence women's behaviors and willingness to schedule and intention to obtain screening.

An understanding of the competing and motivating factors affecting the CCS behavior among women in the context of Ethiopia helps to enhance the screening and treatment efforts. In addition to their limited quantity; most previous studies conducted in Ethiopia narrowly emphasized cognitive dimensions and accessibility of service-related factors. However, none of them has comprehensively addressed the complex normative dimensions and circumstances that importantly influence the women's decision-making process and intention to use CCS. Hence, the study is the first of its kind in Ethiopia in applying the most widely applied and successfully studied behavioral theory to predict the intended use of cervical cancer screening services.

This study is innovative; by validating a HBM for CCS scale that will be applicable to women in Ethiopia will contribute to the growing literature in LMICs.

Efforts directed towards decreasing the morbidity and mortality associated with cervical cancer require both health providers and patients to practice secondary preventive measures such as VIA when available. Prognosis can be improved if screening is embraced and widely employed. For this, it is important that healthcare workers are educated and well aware so that they can influence the beliefs and actions of the general public. In efforts to promote screening healthcare providers play a crucial role in educating women about the benefits of cervical cancer screening as encouragement and motivation from health providers appear to be important factors for ensuring that women receive screening tests.

Since nurses and medical practitioners make up the largest percentage of health care providers, their integration and participation in cervical cancer screening approaches would be very important and beneficial. Health professionals working in different areas are fundamental to a successful reduction in mortality from cervical cancer, since when living in the communities,

their work as health educators and promoters of screening is well noted that aligns with the needs of Ethiopian women and further highlights the importance of this study.

The efficacy of providing a cervical cancer prevention approach should be examined prior to implementation. One such strategy would involve health professionals as well as researchers on how the profession can contribute to improved cervical cancer screening rates among Ethiopian women, the population it serves.

#### Specific Aims:

**Aim 1:** Validate the psychometric properties of the modified HBM for cervical cancer and VIA among health care professionals

**Aim 2:** Determine the preexisting factors affecting the intention of cervical cancer screening among health care professionals

**Aim 3:** Determine predictability of HBM constructs with intention of cervical cancer screening among health care professionals

These aims contribute to the development of a validated tool for use for research and clinical purposes and determine the predictive ability of HBM constructs towards intention to screen. Also to identify factors affecting intention to screen for cervical cancer provides important perceptions that are essential for designing cervical cancer screening strategies that acquaint many women for programmed cervical screening utilization.

### Background and Significance

#### Cervical cancer definition, cause and screening methods

Cervical cancer is cancer that starts in the cells of the cervix. Cervical cancer usually develops slowly over time. Before cancer appears in the cervix, the cells of the cervix go through changes known as dysplasia, in which abnormal cells begin to appear in the cervical tissue. Over time, if not destroyed or removed, the abnormal cells may become cancer cells and start to grow and spread more deeply into the cervix and surrounding areas. Adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma are the 2 most common histologic forms of cervical cancer (34, 35). More than 99% of cervical cancer cases are associated with genital infection with High-Risk type Human papillomavirus (HPV) infections (36). Human papilloma virus is well established to be the primary cause of cervical cancer. There are over 200 recognized serotypes of the HPV virus. The most common are HPV 16 and HPV 18, which are responsible for approximately 70% of cervical cancer cases. Other factors that increase young women's vulnerability to cervical cancer include oral contraceptive use, smoking, and susceptibility of the adolescent cervix to sexually transmitted infections. Due to the sexually transmitted nature of HPV, early onset of sexual intercourse and multiple sex partners are significant risk factors. It is reported that 80–

90% of women will have this sexually transmitted infection at some point in their life, although only 3–4% of them will develop cervical cancer (25). A woman dies every two minutes in developing countries from this disease (37). The most propitious feature of this cancer is that it is preventable and curable in the early stages and cervical cancer screening is vital for its prevention (38). Due to a lack of effective screening programs approximately 85% of women diagnosed with cervical cancer in these countries either die or develop serious morbidities as a consequence (39).

Available evidence supports the conclusion that cervical screening does offer protective benefits and is associated with a reduction in the incidence of invasive cervical cancer and cervical cancer mortality. Key to the success of all cancer screening is early screening of asymptomatic, healthy women when the cancer may be more amenable to treatment. Cancer screening is sub-optimal across different cancers and different delivery systems in Ethiopia (40). The screening methods for cervical cancer are mainly as following: traditional Pap smear, visual inspection with acetic acid & Lugol's iodine (VIA/VILI), liquid-based cytology (LBC) and HPV testing (41).

Cervical cancer screening by visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) and immediate treatment with cryotherapy is recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) for low- and middle-income countries as this method requires trained nurses, few resources, and the results are available immediately (42). As, VIA provides immediate results, thus promoting the linkage of screening with treatment. This “see and treat” method ensures adherence to treatment soon after diagnosis, and reduces the risk that women will be lost to follow-up in the referral system. VIA combined with cryotherapy (freezing of precancerous cervical lesions) in low-resource settings, can be conducted by competent clinicians and nurses (6, 43). Ethiopia has been working on cervical screening using VIA for more than a decade yet cervical screening among Ethiopian women is less than 1 % and has been noted that among women developing cancer, 50% to 60% have never been screened or adequately screened (41, 44). Despite the availability of guideline for cervical cancer prevention and control; screening was not fully implemented in all health care centers and its uptake among the community is still very low (7.3 to 23.5%). This could be attributed to lack of awareness about the importance and availability of cervical cancer screening services, perception about cancer, risk factors and prevention methods. On the other hand, screening uptakes as well as knowledge about cervical cancer risk factors and preventions are low among the health workers (44).

### Prevalence

The last iteration of the Global Cancer Statistics 2020–GLOBOCAN censused approximately 600,000 global cases and 340,000 deaths in 2020, and both statistics are expected to increase without broad interventions (45). Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women, with an estimated 530,000 new cases every year, representing 7.9% of all female cancers (36). It is a serious health condition that affects women both at primary and at later stages of their lives and is responsible for approximately 270,000 deaths annually worldwide (5).

Over the past 30 years, the increasing proportion of young women affected by cervical cancer has ranged from 10% to 40% (46). In developing countries, the number of new cases of cervical cancer was 452,000 and ranked second among malignancies in female patients (45). Conversely, the number of new cases of cervical cancer was 77,000 in developed countries and ranked tenth among female malignancies (41). Human papillomaviruses (HPVs), a group of double-stranded DNA viruses, are the main cause of cervical cancer. HPV is the most common sexually transmitted infection (47). The progression from HPV infection, to persistent infection, to pre-cancerous cervical changes, to invasive cervical cancer typically takes 10 to 15 years or more, but cases of more rapid progression less than 5 years have been reported (48).

### SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

Diverse demographic, socio-psychological, and structural variables may influence perceptions and thus, indirectly influence health-related behaviors. For example, socio-demographic factors, particularly years of education, have a direct effect on behavior by influencing the perception of susceptibility, severity, benefits, and barriers (49).

Studies have documented that several demographic factors contribute to the low uptake of cervical screening including education, income, marital status and age (50). Study findings from Australia, India, and Ethiopia have indicated that the age of an individual is major factor in cervical screening uptake; women younger and older women than those in their 30's was less likely to have had a Pap test (4, 51, 52). These findings are similar to a study in Botswana among female university students which showed that an increase in age to be the only factor found to be associated ( $P = 0.001$ ) with an increased likelihood of obtaining cervical cancer screening (53). There is also considerable evidence from different countries to suggest that women of lower socio-economic status (SES) are less likely to participate in cancer screening than those who are more economically advantaged (54). In addition, adherence to cervical cancer screening recommendations is significantly related to better financial status (55).

The study done in China states, Zimbabwe, Nigerian women sought to evaluate reasons behind failure to participate in CCS that respondents in older age groups were less likely to have had a cervical smear test Odds Ratios (OR) for women aged 60–69, 70–79 and 80 or above, age, income, smoking status, and education and knowledge of CC made a significant impact on adherence to CCS (56).

From a study in Mekelle: the odds of getting screened for cervical cancer in female nurses who work at the outpatient department were 3 times more as compared to female nurses who work in other wards (57). Being a physician (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] =0.12, 95% CI: 0.02, 0.79) and working in a cervical cancer screening center (AOR =0.14, 95% CI: 0.03, 0.68) had a lower odds of cervical cancer screening practices (58).

Women with an awareness of HPV were more likely to be older, studying a health-related major, have a higher class standing, have a personal history of gynecologic visits, and have had a Pap test (59).

#### LIFE STYLE AND CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

Major behavioral risk factors associated with the development of cervical cancer endorsed by the American Cancer Society (24) include smoking, age at first intercourse, multiple sexual partners and HPV infection (60).

Several studies have documented that health behaviors are also associated with adherence to cervical cancer screening recommendations. Hazardous drinking (score of 8 and above) using Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) a 10-item measure developed by a World Health Organization collaborative and increased number of cigarettes smoked per day, are associated with poor Pap smear screening adherence (7). Conversely, women who drank alcohol regularly but not excessively were more likely to have had a Pap test (51). In a study conducted with female nursing undergraduate students in a public university in the USA, variables associated with obtaining a Pap smear included: being in a relationship for one year or longer, being a non-smoker and initiating sexual intercourse at an early age. In contrast, a study conducted by Lindley et al. (2009) found that women who obtained Pap smears were more likely to have been smokers (18). A study from Australia on associations between sexual behavior and cervical cancer screening revealed those without a regular partner were less likely to have had a recent Pap test. Cancer screening among female university students from 25 low, and middle-income countries showed risky sexual behavior and tobacco use was associated with screening (61). Cervical cancer screening was also poor among sexually active students in Saudi Arabia in particular and female family members in general (62). Due to the lack of

consistency among study findings, larger studies on factors that contribute to cervical cancer screening are warranted.

<sup>4</sup> Women attending cervical cancer screening and diagnosis center at Yirgalem General Hospital, Southern Ethiopia; from the screened and diagnosed clients those with multiple sexual partners had 40 times higher odds of cervical than those with no multiple sexual partners. This study revealed that being Human immune deficiency virus-positive (AOR=9.033: 95%: CI 4.537, 17.985), sexually transmitted infection history (AOR=8.364:95% CI: 5.639, 12.405) and early age at initiation of sexual intercourse (AOR=8.968:95%: CI 5.588, 14.393) have statistically significant association with cervical cancer screening (63).

#### HISTORY OF SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED DISEASE

Studies have demonstrated that up to 80% of sexually active adults will acquire at least one HPV type infection during their lifetime, and the infection affects 26.8% of women of reproductive age (64). HPV is a highly prevalent STD and HPV infection has reached epidemic proportions in college females due in large part to high-risk sexual activity. This trend indicates a rising wave of cervical cancer in the future, and the importance of regular Pap tests (65). Female adolescents who have unprotected sexual intercourse are at higher risk for contracting HPV and other STDs than their peers who either abstain from or have protected sexual intercourse (51).

The finding of a study in south Ethiopia reveals being Human immune deficiency virus-positive (AOR=9.033: 95%: CI 4.537, 17.985), sexually transmitted infection history (AOR=8.364:95% CI: 5.639, 12.405), multiple sexual partners are significantly associated with cervical cancer as compared to those women who have no exposure of multiple sexual partners (AOR=40; 95% CI: 22.44,70.204) and having history of STI exposure and being HIV positive became significant with the outcome variable of the study as compared to those women who have no history of STI exposure and HIV negative (AOR=8.3 :95%CI: 5.639,12.405) and (AOR=9:95% CI: 9:4.537,17.985) respectively (63).

Findings of studies conducted in different parts of Ethiopia showed having history of multiple sexual partners of the husband found to have 2.973 times association for cervical cancer screening with (AOR=2.973; 95%CI=1.414-6.247) compared to having one sexual partner of the husband. Also having one sexual partner of the husband found to have association for cervical cancer screening behavior than not having multiple sexual partners of the husband (66).

The same result reported from Mekelle showed that women who have history of multiple sexual partners were 1.635 times association for cervical cancer screening behaviour with(AOR =1.635,95%CI=1.094–2.443) (4). Also study conducted in Yirgalem showed that having multiple sexual partner of the husband had significant association with cervical cancer screening behavior with(AOR=40; 95% CI: 22.44,70.204) (67). In addition, similar findings of study conducted in Finote Selam Town North west Ethiopia showed that having history of STDs were nearly 2.75 times had association with cervical cancer screening behavior with(AOR= 2.75, 95%CI:1.24,6.04) same result was also reported from Mekele, where women with history of sexually transmitted disease had 4.129 times significant association with the cervical screening behavior with (AOR = 4.129, 95% CI = 2.281–7.476) (63).

#### KNOWLEDGE OF CERVICAL CANCER AND SCREENING

Inadequate knowledge and lack of awareness can become a barrier to cervical cancer prevention (39, 68-70). It is well established that knowledge does not always translate into behavior but improved knowledge has been found to increase the rate of cervical cancer screening in most research settings (69). In one study of young women, only a minority of women have any knowledge or awareness of HPV in relation to cervical cancer (60). Many participants in previous screening studies have little knowledge of cervical cancer and early screening. Lack of knowledge regarding cervical cancer screening, and insufficient information available about screening centers prevents women from receiving care at healthcare clinics (71). Previous studies have found that women with a high level of cervical cancer prevention knowledge and awareness of screening facility location are more likely to seek screening (31).

A study conducted among college students, in the USA, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ghana, South Africa, Nigeria, and Ethiopia found low awareness levels for the issues related to screening and revealed there were specific gaps in knowledge about cervical cancer risk factors(25, 51, 72-74). Further, a study that examined knowledge and attitude of female medical students, in Ukraine demonstrated that only 58% had heard about cervical cancer screening; 17% of respondents knew about the HPV test while only 3% knew about VIA testing for cervical cancer (73, 75).A study in China of a sample of medical students found females were more likely to accept HPV vaccines (OR, 1.86; 95% CI: 1.47-2.35) or cervical cancer screening (OR, 3.69; 95% CI: 2.88-4.74) (76).

Finding from the US study indicated females were significantly more knowledgeable about the relationship between HPV and cervical cancer and that changes in a Pap smear may indicate an

HPV infection ( $p < .05$ ). Younger participants (18-22 years) were more aware of the existence of the HPV vaccination when compared to older participants (23 - 24 years) ( $p < .05$ ) (77).

Although a positive association between women's knowledge <sup>6</sup> about cervical cancer and the likelihood of her having a Pap smear has been found, poor uptake of screening services among the better-informed healthcare workers, and patients, was a recurrent finding in the studies reviewed and reasons for this should be further investigated. The recommendation of healthcare providers can also influence screening behavior, and providers who lack basic knowledge may be a problem in this context (78). Another finding from a study in Turkey among nurses came up with there was a statistically significant relationship between having received a Pap test and having a history of cancer in their family ( $p < 0.05$ ) (79).

In sum, previous research demonstrated low levels of knowledge and awareness about cervical cancer screening which decreases the likelihood of participating in the recommended guidelines for screening. This low level of awareness could be attributed to different factors like the socio-demographic background, level of knowledge, and attitude. The results were not expected for literate women in a college environment, however further investigation and exploration for possible solution is needed as nurses or other health care workers play an important role in successful screening against cervical cancer.

#### CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING BEHAVIORS AMONG HEALTH CARE PROFESSIONALS

As evidenced by the literature, a high level of awareness and knowledge of cervical cancer demonstrated by health professionals did not translate to the proper utilization of the screening services (57). For example, a study involving Ukraine medical students revealed even though 82% were aware that cervical cancer is a major health concern, only 32% had ever obtained a pap smear (80). Another study in South India among nursing staff revealed similar findings with only 5 (4%) had undergone a previous Pap smear examination (81). Health science <sup>5</sup> students who showed negative or uncertain attitudes towards premarital sex were less likely to accept either HPV vaccines (OR, 0.67; 95% CI: 0.47-0.96), or cervical cancer screening (OR, 0.68; 0.47-0.10) (82). Although surprising, physicians were 88% less likely screened for cervical cancer than other health care workers were (AOR =0.12, 95% CI: 0.02, 0.79). In addition, those who were working in cervical cancer screening centers were 86% less likely to be screened for cervical cancer than their counterparts (AOR =0.14, 95% CI: 0.03, 0.68) (58).

Among the 225 respondents, only 24 (10.7%) nurses reported that they have ever been tested for cervical cancer in the past five years (2009–2014). The most common reasons for not being

screened for cervical cancer were carelessness (17.9%), fear of positive results (16.4%), and fear of pain (10.9%), among a list of different reasons (57).

The most common reasons cited for having cervical cancer screening from studies conducted in China, Nigeria, Ethiopia were importance or positive attitudes and awareness towards screening practice (4, 82-84).

A study among nurses in Addis Ababa Nurses who ever taken care of a cervical cancer diagnosed patient and who ever visited a health institution were 2 and 4 times more likely to practice preventive measures than those who didn't practice (AOR=2.412, 95%CI=1.153-5.046; AOR=4.203, 95%CI=1.390-12.708), respectively). Professional experience was also found to be significantly associated with preventive practice (85).

#### HEALTH BELIEF MODEL AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

According to the HBM theory, for behavioral change to succeed people must have an incentive to take action, feel threatened by their current behavioral patterns, and believe that change of a specific kind will be beneficial by resulting in a valued outcome at acceptable cost, but they must also feel themselves competent (self-efficacious) to implement that change.

#### PERCEIVED SUSCEPTIBILITY

The likelihood of taking preventive action increases when the individual has a sense of perceived susceptibility or vulnerability to cervical cancer (86). In Uganda among medical workers including nurses, doctors and final year medical students agreed that cervical cancer was a public health problem; but 81% eligible female respondents had never been screened, mostly because they did not feel vulnerable to the disease. Sixty eight percent thought that it was easy to diagnose and 65% of the participating females did not think they were susceptible to cervical cancer themselves, while 60% of males thought that their partners were susceptible. It is unlikely that these medical workers would feel motivated to screen others or advise them (87).

Individuals who perceive themselves to be at risk of a cervical cancer diagnosis were 1.8 times more likely obtain Pap smear than those who perceived themselves not to be at risk (AOR.834; 95CI; 1.094-3.067), (P = 0.02). A study conducted in Mekelle, Ethiopia found that women who perceived their potential susceptibility to develop cervical cancer was higher 2.225 times more likely to be screened compared to those with less perceived susceptibility (AOR = 2.225, 95%CI = 1.308–3.783). Approximately half (50.72%) of the participants lacked a sense of personal susceptibility to cervical cancer and showed no interest in obtaining screening (74).

#### PERCEIVED SEVERITY

A systematic review among Vietnamese American women using the HBM to predict Pap smear testing found that among the six studies that included measures of perceived severity of cervical cancer, only two suggested higher levels of perceived severity of cervical cancer were associated with an increased odd of having had a Pap screening (29).

A study in Ghana indicated more than 68% perceived that young women were susceptible; a lower percentage (52.5%) believed that they themselves were at risk for cervical cancer. About 3 quarters (73%) of respondents believed that cervical cancer was a serious disease that would make a woman's life difficult (72). Within the "health belief" box, perceived susceptibility and severity are combined to identify threat (17).

<sup>4</sup>

#### PERCEIVED BENEFITS

Even if a person perceives personal susceptibility to a serious health condition, (perceived threat), whether this perception leads to behavior change will be influenced by the person's belief regarding the perceived benefits of the various available actions for reducing the disease threat (49).

A study conducted on female undergraduate nursing students in the US revealed non-routine group of participants perceived lower benefits and higher barriers to obtaining Pap smear testing than the routine group of participants (who obtain pap tests every 2 to 3 years). The non-routine group was less likely to believe that the Pap smear is a beneficial screening test that is able to identify abnormal cervical cells early or that it is the best way to find abnormal cervical cells. The non-routine group was also less likely to trust the Pap smear test's ability to detect precancerous or cancerous cervical cells (18).

In terms of perceived benefits of a Pap test, approximately 50% of the Vietnamese American women participants believed that Pap tests were the best method to detect cervical cancer and if detected early, could be easily treated and the Pap smear test key to staying healthy. Women who perceived these benefits were two to four times more likely to of having received Pap test compared with those who did not(29). In support of these findings, students in Ghana understood that cervical cancer screening had benefits; they believed that the test could find cervical changes before they became cancerous and could be easily cured (16).

#### PERCEIVED BARRIER

According to Al -Naggar and Isa (2010), barriers influencing Pap screening are embarrassment, fear of pain, cost, and access to health care, examined by a male, lack of awareness and fear of infection. A study found that medical students were embarrassed and anxious about having a

vaginal or pelvic examination done by male doctors. According to Watkins and Cousins, fear is detrimental to people being able to perceive themselves at risk, and for this reason. Knowledge of cervical cancer, screening practices and vaccines among female medical students in Dominican Republic highlights the major barriers to cervical cancer screening in the perception they are healthy, the embarrassment and cost of the procedure (29, 39, 87-89).

Study from Iran revealed the most important perceived barriers to cancer screening included: embarrassment about undergoing a Pap smear test, lack of time for undergoing a Pap smear test, fear of Pap test pain, fear of positive Pap test results, doubts about Pap test effectiveness, and fear about the procedure of a Pap smear test(90). In contrast, the belief that cervical cancer is a terminal illness and death is inevitable when cancer is detected has been identified as a barrier to participation in cancer screening, detection and treatment (91).

Lack of knowledge of cervical cancer among health workers was seen as a primary barrier for access to cervical cancer screening in Cameroon. Similar findings showed that lack of advice and encouragement from health workers affected the screening of women in Zimbabwe (39, 92).

Five qualitative studies (focus groups and interviews) were conducted among low-income women in Venezuela, Ecuador, Mexico, El Salvador, and Peru regarding barriers and benefits of cervical cancer screening, many of the participants who were married also indicated that their husband's would not be comfortable knowing that their wife was having a cervical cancer screening performed by a male doctor. With the exception of giving birth, participants indicated that is a taboo for a man, even a doctor, to see another man's wife naked. In addition, preventive healthcare is uncommon and underappreciated (93). The study from Uganda indicated 25% of the female respondents said that they would only accept a vaginal examination by a female health worker (89).

Perceived barriers have a significant impact on cervical cancer screening participation. For example, factors influencing participation in cervical cancer screening clinic in Jamaica, women with perceived barriers to cervical cancer screening were 76% less likely to be screened than those who had no perceived barriers. In support of these findings, a likely to be screened than those who have perceived barriers (AOR = 2.256, 95%CI = 1.447–3.517) (4).

Condition like free health check-up, that could minimize certain barriers will aid an increase to the number of women participants for screening (74).

### SELF-EFFICACY

Regarding measures of self-efficacy, women who were confident in their abilities to schedule a Pap test, to undergo the Pap test, or to manage any emotional distress caused by the test reported substantially higher screening rates (72%–73%) than those who lacked strong confidence (14%–16%) ( $p < 0.001$ ) (29).

Additionally behavioral intention among health science undergraduate students in India revealed that less than 4% of the students stated an intention to receive the HPV vaccine in the future due to “not being at risk.”(94).

From Mizan Tepi University only 31(14.83%) have been screened for cervical cancer. The rest had not been screened for cervical cancer because of different reasons (74).

### TRANS- THEORETICAL MODEL AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

In developed countries, where there is proper access to effective cervical cancer screening programs, the regular use of the Pap test is higher than in developing countries, resulting in a lower rate of death from cervical cancer in these countries.

TTM has become one of the most commonly applied theoretical and clinical frameworks and is effective across a broad spectrum of problems and to preventative measures such as medical screens like mammography and cancer screening (95). Specifically, the stages of change construct, provides a method to deliver messages based on the participant’s readiness to change their cancer screening behavior (96). Women with a lapse in a behavior or adopting a new behavior, such as cervical cancer screening, progress through a series of stages of readiness to change including: (a) precontemplation, no intention to complete screening; (b) contemplation, serious thoughts about completing screening in the next six months; (c) preparation, intention to complete screening in the next month; (d) action, completed screening; (e) maintenance, work to prevent relapse in not undergoing screening; and (f) termination, behavior change is complete and not at risk for relapse (96).

Research on the TTM as it relates to cervical cancer screening has supported these hypothesized associations between <sup>5</sup>stages of change and perceived benefits and barriers (96). Several potential factors may explain the low uptake of regular Pap tests among women. In a study among Iranian women, which examined the role of theory-based cognitive factors in the uptake of the regular Pap test; according to their results, <sup>6</sup>the perceived benefits, the perceived barriers, and perceived self-efficacy emerged as predictors of cervical cancer screening’s stages of

change. According to the stages of Pap test adaptation, women in later stages (for example: maintenance) demonstrated higher levels of perceived benefits, higher levels of perceived self-efficacy, and lower levels of perceived barriers than women in the earlier stages (for example: pre-contemplation) (90). Women in Action and Maintenance were also more likely to have had their last Pap test by a female GP compared to women in relapse categories. Women in Pre-contemplation were more likely than women who had Pap tests to agree that they would travel a long way to see a practitioner who spoke their own language (97).

Being in the action stage was significantly related to a reduced number of reported barriers ( $p < .001$ ) with a rate ratio of 0.61 (95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.46 – 0.82) for those in the action stage. This indicated roughly a 39% decrease in the number of barriers for those participants in the action stage compared to those in the other three stages (pre-contemplation, contemplation, and preparation) (96). Univariate logistic regression analyses were used to explore demographic and health factors associated with being in the action stage. At the completion of the intervention, women  $\leq 30$  years (odds ratio [OR] = 1.92, 95% CI = 0.63, 5.85) or  $> 30$  years and  $\leq 50$  years (OR = 4.20, 95% CI = 1.51, 11.68) were more likely to be in the action group than those over age 50 years. All other measured variables were not significantly related to being in the action stage (96).

The study in the Ohio Appalachian women examined the association between endorsement of barriers, stage of change, and screening attendance using univariate and multiple logistic regression analyses. In unadjusted analyses, women with the following barriers were less likely to be in the action stage: lack of provider recommendation ( $p = 0.004$ ), being embarrassed by having a Pap test ( $p = 0.05$ ), cost ( $p = 0.03$ ), and being nervous and afraid of completing a Pap test ( $p = 0.05$ ) (96). Multiple linear regressions and multiple comparisons with Bonferroni correction revealed that participants in action/maintenance stages showed significantly higher self-efficacy scores ( $M = 75.50$ ,  $SD = 21.10$ ) than those in contemplation/preparation stages ( $M = 65.20$ ,  $SD = 24.38$ ,  $p = 0.015$ ) and those in pre-contemplative /relapse stages ( $M = 50.35$ ,  $SD = 21.40$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). Women in the pre-contemplative/relapse stages reported significantly higher perceived barriers scores ( $M=2.71$ ,  $SD =0.52$ ) than those in contemplation/preparation ( $M=2.14$ ,  $SD=0.44$ ,  $p=0.009$ ) and action/maintenance stages ( $M=2.02$ ,  $SD = 0.49$ ,  $p = 0.0006$ ) (96).

A study in south west Ethiopia among women attending gynecology out-patient department and maternal and child health revealed the majority of the participants 225(70.1%) have no intention for cervical cancer screening while 96 (29.9%) have the intention to get screened (66).

### **Summary of the literature review**

The efficacy of providing a cervical cancer prevention approach should be examined prior to implementation. One such strategy would involve health professionals as well as researchers on how the profession can contribute to improved cervical cancer screening rates among Ethiopian women, the population it serves.

#### **What is known?**

Ethiopia is working to make CCS available. Understanding the competing and motivating factors affecting the CCS behavior among women in the context of Ethiopia helps to enhance the screening and treatment efforts. In addition to their limited quantity; most previous studies conducted in Ethiopia narrowly emphasized cognitive dimensions and accessibility of service-related factors.

Efforts directed towards decreasing the morbidity and mortality associated with cervical cancer require both health providers and patients to practice secondary preventive measures such as VIA when available. Prognosis can be improved if screening is embraced and widely employed. For this, it is important that healthcare workers are educated and well aware so that they can influence the beliefs and actions of the general public. In efforts to promote screening health-care providers play a crucial role in educating women about the benefits of cervical cancer screening as encouragement and motivation from health providers appear to be important factors for ensuring that women receive screening tests.

Since nurses and medical practitioners make up the largest percentage of health care providers, their integration and participation in cervical cancer screening approaches would be very important and beneficial. Health professionals working in different areas are fundamental to a successful reduction in mortality from cervical cancer, since when living in the communities, their work as health educators and promoters of screening is well noted that aligns with the needs of Ethiopian women and further highlights the importance of this study.

#### **What is unknown?**

The complex normative dimensions and circumstances that importantly influence the women's decision-making process and intention to use CCS has not been comprehensively addressed in Ethiopia. The psychometric properties of a widely applied and successfully studied behavioral theory has not been previously examined among health care professionals in Ethiopia and the

stages of change in relation with intention to screen was not addressed. Furthermore; predictive ability of the model for intention to get cervical cancer screening is unknown.

In summary, this section has provided an overview of a review of literature on cervical cancer mortality, socio-demographic and economic characteristics in relation to cervical cancer, health behavior and cervical cancer screening, history of STD, knowledge of cervical cancer and screening, cervical cancer screening behavior among different population. Also; health belief model and its relationship to cervical cancer screening and the stages of change in behavior using the TNM and forecasting its relation with cervical cancer screening intent was underlined. The next section outlines the framework for the study followed by method to be used to carry the study.

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The HBM framework presented as one of the theoretical approaches to promote and maintain a life style change that encourages health promotion, health maintenance, and assist in decreasing complications due to chronic illness. The Health Belief Model (HBM) has been applied to a broad range of health behaviors and subject populations. Three broad areas have been identified using the HBM(Conner & Norman, 1996): (1) Preventive health behaviors, which include health-promoting (e.g. diet, exercise, vaccination) and health-risk (e.g. smoking, sexual) behaviors, (2) Sick or healthy role behaviors, refers to compliance with recommended medical regimens, (e.g. following professional recommendations for treatment and medication, adhering to follow-up after screening) and, (3) Clinic use, includes physician or nurse visits for a variety of reasons(98).

There is limited research however, on the use of the HBM for examining cervical cancer screening among health care professionals working at the College of Health Sciences in Ethiopia. The findings from this study may inform future studies testing methods to empower female health care professionals to overcome barriers associated with cervical cancer screening increasing screening rates and ultimately to reduce the number of new cases. The HBM is considered appropriate for this study because the model is not only used in addressing individual behavior, but it is also effective in addressing health conditions that evoke care and concern such as cervical cancer screening (17).

### HEALTH BELIEF MODEL AND CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

For the proposed study, the investigators will use the HBM to examine knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and treatment-seeking behavior surrounding cervical cancer screening and assess the factors that influence the health seeking behavior. In the model we will look at the following variables: Pre-existing factors (age, marital status, occupation, monthly income and work experience), Clinical (oral contraceptive use, STD, number of pregnancy), Life style (smoking, alcohol use, substance use, age at first intercourse, multiple sexual partners) and the constructs of the HBM; perceived health threats (readiness to seek care or not, history of cervical cancer, family history), perceived barriers (education levels, knowledge and awareness, fatalistic expressions, embarrassment issues, fear of pain, cost and time), perceived benefits (less likely to have cervical cancer), and self-efficacy (confidence in ability to decide to obtain cervical cancer screening).

### TRANS-THEORETICAL MODEL AND CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

The stage of change theory is one of the most important theoretical frameworks that have been shown to be useful in assessing an individual's readiness to act on health behavior(90). Women can be described along a series of stages of readiness to practice regular Pap test screening: (a) pre-contemplation: never had a Pap test and no intention to have one within the next 6 months; (b) contemplation: never had a Pap test but intends to have one within the next 6 months; (c) preparation: never had a Pap test but intends to have one within the month; (d) action: had one Pap test in the past year and intends to continue getting regular Pap tests; (e) maintenance: had regular Pap tests and intends to continue to do so; (f) relapse risk: on schedule, but no intention to get one in the future; and (g) relapse: had Pap tests in the past, none in the last 3 years, and does not intend to get one (19). For this study PAP test is changed to VIA as this is the common screening technique used in Ethiopia.

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

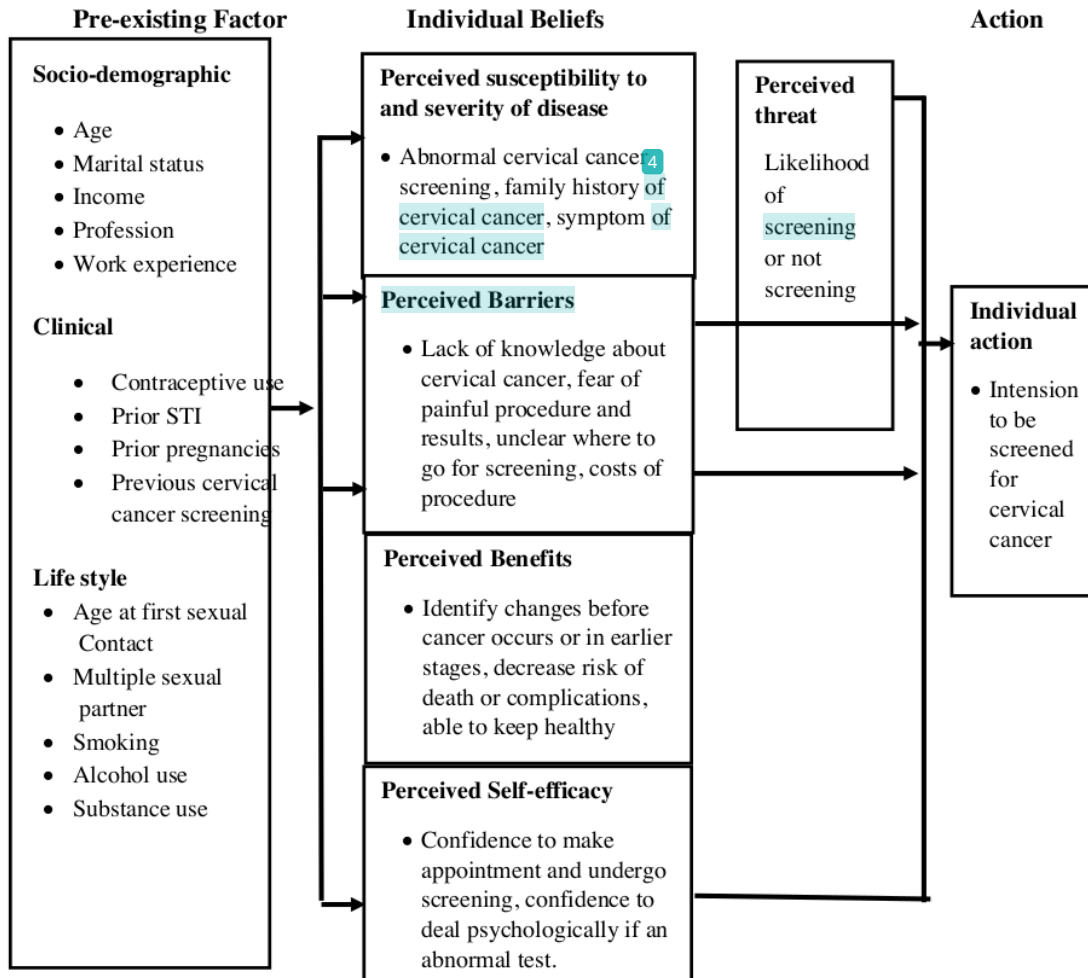


Figure 1 Conceptual model adapted based on Health Belief Model, Rosenstock 1974

## RESEARCH METHODS

### Study design

This dissertation was based on a primary analysis to validate the psychometric properties of the modified HBM for cervical cancer and VIA, to determine the intention of screening with visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) and its determinants among female healthcare professionals

(HCPs) guided by the trans-theoretical model (TTM) of stages of behavior change and to identify predictability of HBM constructs with intention of cervical cancer screening using cross-sectional design.

#### Study participants and setting

The study took place at Addis Ababa University College of Health Sciences from April 2020 to mid of June 2020. Addis Ababa University (AAU), which was established in 1950 as the University College of Addis Ababa (UCAA), is the oldest and the largest higher learning and research institution in Ethiopia. Since its inception, the University has been the leading center in teaching-learning, research and community services. The College of Health Sciences (CHS), Addis Ababa University (AAU), is a professional health sciences college, established in 2009/10 by the reorganization of previously separate institutions of health under one umbrella. AAU now has 8,709 staff (3,110 academics, 4,346 admin support staff and 1253 health Professionals) (AAU portal). As per the office of human resource of the College of Health Sciences there are 3017 permanently employed staffs where 913 were academics (683 male and 230 female), 1204 health professionals (457 male and 747 female) and 900 administrative staffs (236 male and 664 females). This dissertation work enrolled multidisciplinary group of female health care professionals like nurses, midwives, physician, pharmacist, lab technicians and others working at Addis Ababa University, College of Health Sciences in 2020. The setting is selected since it the only teaching and health service provision area inclusive all types health care professionals and better fitting to the aim of the study. Participants were, 30 years old and above. The rationale for including women 30 years of age or older is because cervical cancer has a long precancerous period, usually taking more than 10 years to progress from precancerous lesions to invasive cancer. As a result, it is rare for cervical cancer to develop in a woman less than 30 years of age (WHO 2006). In addition, the Federal Ministry of Health of Ethiopia supports implementing VIA testing starting age 30. The sample size was calculated using psychometric testing, the total sample size was determined with reference to the number of participants per item. A wide range of recommendations about sample size in factor analysis has been made from 3:1 to 5:1 subjects per item (99). For this study ratio of 5:1 was used for the exploratory factor analysis. The Champion's HBM scale to be tested for validity and reliability contains 42 items, with thus the sample size was 210 (42items times [5 subjects per item]). For the other two aims of the study including sample size was determined using Epi INFO STAT Calc. sample calculation for population survey; by considering the expected frequency of 25% obtained prevalence of cervical cancer screening practice from a study on cervical cancer screening knowledge and barriers among women in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

(100). Assuming population size 977, 3% marginal error (d), 95% confidence interval, hence n= 440. The total sample size by adding 10%non-response rate was n = 484.

### Data Collection

Different data collection strategies were used in this study. Study-developed data extraction forms and standardized instruments were used to collect demographic, clinical, lifestyle, knowledge, HBM constructs and TTM. The summary of variables and measurement instruments are provided in Table 1.

Table 1 Summary of variables and measurement instrument

Variable	Instrument	Instrument Description	Psychometrics
<i>Socio-demographic</i>	Self-developed	age, marital status, income, work experience, profession, and level of education.	
<i>Clinical</i>		contraceptive use, history of STD, past history of screening tests for cervical cancer, history of taking care of patients / family member with cervical cancer (101).	
<i>Life style</i>		age at first sexual contact, multiple partners, alcohol consumed, condom use, smoking status: (101).	
<i>Knowledge of cervical cancer and screening</i>	Previously tested tool by Thapa and Oche (2018)	28 item question to elicit risk factors (5 items), sign and symptoms (5 items), preventive measures (8 items), and its screening (10 items) (102, 103) Bloom's cut of Good knowledge if it comprises a score of 23-28 (80-100 %), moderate with scores of 16-22 (60-79%) and poor if the score was <16 (<60 %) (104).	Cronbach's $\alpha$ value 0.90
<i>HBM constructs:</i>	Champion's HBM to Breast cancer and 'Health Belief Model Scale for Cervical Cancer and the Pap Smear Test'	42 items in six subscales: Benefit (1 <sup>st</sup> – 8 <sup>th</sup> ), Barrier (9 <sup>th</sup> - 26 <sup>th</sup> ), seriousness (27 <sup>th</sup> - 33 <sup>th</sup> ), susceptibility (34 <sup>th</sup> - 36 <sup>th</sup> ), health motivation (37 <sup>th</sup> – 39 <sup>th</sup> ) and (40 <sup>th</sup> – 42 <sup>nd</sup> ) for self-efficacy	Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the subscales ranges 0.62 to 0.86
<i>TNM:</i>	Stages	describes health care professionals along a series of stages of readiness to practice regular VIA screening	
	pre-contemplation	Never had a VIA and no intention to have one within the next six months	
	Contemplation	Never had a VIA but intends to have one within the next six month	
	Preparation	Never had a VIA but intends to have one within the month	
	Action	Had one VIA in the past year and intends to continue getting regular VIA	
	Maintenance	Had regular VIA and intends to continue to do so	
	Relapse risk	On schedule, but no intention to get one in the future	
	Relapse	Had VIA in the past, none in the last three years, and does not intend to get one	
	<b>Intention to obtain cervical cancer screening</b>	if respondents say 'Yes' as a response for (contemplation, preparation, action, maintenance) of the TNM stages (19).	
	<b>No intention to obtain cervical cancer screening:</b>	if respondents say 'Yes' as a response to (pre-contemplation, relapse risk, relapse) of the TNM stages (19).	

### Data Analysis

Data were entered and cleaned using Epi info version 7, and exported to a computerized Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 for analysis.

#### **Aim 1: Psychometric properties of a modified health belief model for cervical cancer and visual inspection with acetic acid among healthcare professionals in Ethiopia**

Construct validity of the scale was examined using EFA and principal axis factoring (PAF) extraction with oblimin rotation. The loading criterion was set as  $\leq 0.3$  and Bartlett's tests was used to analyze sampling adequacy. Reliability included internal consistency and was estimated using Cronbach alpha coefficient values for the different domains of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha between 0.70–0.90 is considered to reflect adequate internal consistency (105). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used to quantify sufficiency of item correlation for performing factor analysis. The KMO index ranges from zero to one and, the minimum acceptable value is 0.60. Bartlett test of sphericity test was applied to assess the presence of correlations among variables significant value ( $p < 0.05$ ) indicates the appropriateness of EFA (106). Generally, the results indicated strong factorability and supported conducting an EFA. Factor extraction analysis was conducted using PAF to determine the number of factors to retain, as follows: (a) using the Guttman- Kaiser greater-than-one rule which recommends that only those factors with eigenvalues  $> 1.0$  be retained; (b) using the Cattell scree test, which involves constructing 16 plots of extracted factors against their eigenvalues in descending order of magnitude; (c) by applying the Monte Carlo Parallel analysis rule, which compares factor eigenvalues to a set of eigenvalues generated from random data, and recommends retaining those eigenvalues that exceed the corresponding values from the random data; and, (d) by calculating the amount of total variance explained by the communality of each variable to determine the number of factors to be preserved (107). PAF was conducted together with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) which is often seen as producing more accurate results for research involving human behaviors. Regardless of which rotation method is used, the main objectives are to provide easier interpretation of results, and produce a solution that is more parsimonious. Items were deleted from the EFA if factor load was  $< 0.5$ , loaded on more than one factor, or not loaded on any factor (108). In confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), model fitness was assessed by (a) over model fitness, using the Chi test  $\chi^2 (p) (p > 0.05)$  and normed (Chi-square and df ratio)  $\chi^2 (CMIN/df) \leq 3$ ; (b) incremental fitness with comparative fit index (CFI) and normed fit index (NFI)  $\geq 0.95$  and; (c) absolute fitness with, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted GFI (AGFI)  $\geq 0.80$ , root mean square residual (RMR)  $\leq 0.08$ , and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)  $\leq 0.06$  (109). The method used to potentially further refine /remove items from the instrument was with load  $< 0.3$

or, higher covariance, and estimates of the residual variance. The criteria for convergent validity were as follows composite reliability  $\geq \pm 1.97$  ( $p < 0.05$ ); and average variance extracted (AVE)  $\geq 0.50$  (110).

**Aim 2: Intention to screen for cervical cancer and factors associated among female healthcare professionals using the trans-theoretical model: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia**

Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations and frequencies were calculated. Contributions of the predictors of the outcome variable intent to screen for cervical cancer were examined by performing a logistic regression analysis. Multicollinearity was checked using tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Variables with p-value  $< 0.2$  during the bivariate analysis considering each predictor one at a time were included in the final model. Multiple logistic regression analysis was computed to consider the conditional effects of factors. Crude odds ratios (COR) were computed for each predictor one at a time for the outcome. Adjusted odds ratio (AOR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were constructed to measure the strength of association between the intent to screen for cervical cancer and the selected predictors combined together in the final logistic regression model. For all statistical tests, p-value  $\leq 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

**Aim 3 Health Belief Model ability to predict intention to screen for cervical cancer using visual inspection with acetic acid among female healthcare professionals**

Perceived susceptibility to cervical cancer, perceived benefits of cervical cancer screening, perceived barriers to cervical cancer screening, perceived seriousness to cervical cancer, perceived susceptibility to cervical cancer and self-efficacy to cervical cancer screening were the independent variables in this study and are the main constructs of the HBM. The dependent variable, intention toward cervical cancer screening, was derived from the stages of change of the trans-theoretical model. Descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the characteristics of the sample, through frequencies and percentages. Bivariate correlation was used to examine the relationship between each construct of HBM. We present adjusted odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) from logistic regression analyses. The goodness-of-fit of the model was examined using Hosmer-lemeshow test. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to identify which construct had significance with intention with p-value of 0.05. Those statistically significant constructs were further analyzed using ROC analysis to evaluate the predictability of HBM constructs for intention determined by area under curve with sensitivity and specificity value. The value of AUC ranges from 0-1: where a value of 0.5= No discrimination, 0.5-0.7 = Poor discrimination, 0.7-0.8 = Acceptable discrimination, 0.8-0.9=

Excellent discrimination  $>0.9$  = Outstanding discrimination (111). The level of statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

#### Ethical consideration

The study received ethical approval from Institutional Review Board of Addis Ababa University with a protocol number 017/20/ before the initiation of the study. Written informed consent was collected from all participants. All potential participants were informed about the purpose, method and expected benefit of the study. As a protection of the rights of the study participants, this consent expressly includes a guarantee that they are free to participate in the study or not to participate. Withdrawal from the study would not affect anything and had no risk or direct benefits. The confidentiality of all participants throughout the research process was maintained by using anonymity of the participants, all information gathered was kept secured and any personal information was not transferred to a third party (Annex I).

#### <sup>4</sup> Strength and limitations of the study

A strength of the study was the ability to validate a culturally appropriate modified version of the cervical cancer screening and VIA HBM tool that may be used for future studies among Ethiopian women. We examined the predictive power of each subscale of the HBM and its applicability to cervical cancer screening. These results also serve to identify intervention priorities that may be useful to apply to improve cervical cancer screening and perhaps may apply or be adapted for other types of cancer screening. There were also several limitations of this study. Due to of the cross-sectional nature of the data used, the stability of the initial and revised dimension scores over time were not examined. Further, data for the present instrument revision were provided by a sample from a specific population, healthcare professionals; hence, the generalizability of the HBM instrument should be examined in other populations of women in Ethiopia, such as those from rural areas and women who are less educated.

## **DISSEMINATION OF FINDINGS**

The final project report will be presented and submitted to Addis Ababa university, School of Graduate Studies. Abstract was selected for poster presentation to the AAU,2024 research and Health fair week at the College level in TASH and has been presented. The findings of the study will be disseminated through presentation at professional seminars and conferences held at the national and international levels. Many of the findings of this study have already been published on international and nationally peer reviewed journals and disseminated to the scientific community.

- I. **Psychometric properties of the modified health belief model for cervical cancer and visual inspection with acetic acid among health care professionals in Ethiopia**, *PLoS One*. 2024;19(4)
- II. **Intention to screen for cervical cancer among health care professionals working at the college of health sciences of Addis Ababa University: clued by trans-theoretical model**, *Ethiop. J. Health Dev.* 2023; 37(1)
- III. **Health Belief Model ability to predict intention to screen for cervical cancer using visual inspection with acetic acid among female healthcare professionals** submitted to *Psychological Science, SAGE journals*.

## CHAPTER II

### Article 1: Psychometric properties of a modified health belief model for cervical cancer and visual inspection with acetic acid among healthcare professionals in Ethiopia

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#### Abstract

**Purpose:** Evidence supports that the Health Belief Model (HBM) can explain and predicts certain health behaviors, including participation in cervical cancer (CC) screening. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the psychometric properties of a modified HBM for CC and visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) in female healthcare professionals in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 2020.

**Methods:** psychometric properties related to CC and VIA were tested using 42-item modified HBM self-administered questionnaire and a cross-sectional study design with simple random sampling. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's sphericity test indicated that data sampling adequacy for exploratory factor analysis was 0.792 ( $\chi^2 = 3189.95$ ,  $df = 351$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Items with cross-loading and factor loadings  $\geq 0.5$  were retained. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to determine model fit.

**Results:** the final analysis included 194 women, (mean age  $30 \pm 4.34$ ). Twelve items with  $\leq 0.5$  were removed and 30 retained items loaded into 6 factors; (benefits of VIA, perceived seriousness of CC, barrier (fear of negative outcome), self-efficacy, susceptibility to CC, and barriers (health system delivery)) explained 65% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha for the total instrument was 0.8 and reliability for the 6 subscales was 0.76–0.92. Composite reliability and average variance extracted indicated good internal consistency and convergent validity. CFA identified 6 additional items to be removed with high residual covariance. The final 24 items of the modified HBM had an acceptable model fit (goodness-of-fit index (GFI)= 0.861, adjusted GFI= 0.823, comparative fit index = 0.937, root mean square error of approximation=0.059).

**Conclusion:** The modified HBM for CC and VIA with 24 items had adequate psychometric properties and may be used by Ethiopian healthcare professionals for research or clinical purposes. To support external validity the updated 24 items tool is suggested for application in further study in different populations in Ethiopia.

**Keywords:** Cervical cancer screening, confirmatory factor analysis, exploratory factor analysis, psychometrics

## Introduction

The global burden of cervical cancer is projected to continue to increase, rising to approximately 700,000 diagnosed, with an estimated 400,000 deaths in 2030. Most of these increases will be among women in low and middle income countries (LMICs), reflecting the severity of the global divide in cervical cancer morbidity and mortality (1, 2). In LMICs, including Ethiopia, cervical cancer the leading cause of death. In 2010, the Ethiopian Ministry of Health reported that there were 4,648 new cases and 3,235 deaths due to cervical cancer, equating to a mortality rate of 18.4/10000 (4, 58, 112).

Screening is the single most important public health strategy to reduce cervical cancer incidence and consequent mortality (11, 12). Survival rates for cervical cancer in Sub Saharan Africa are 21% compared with 70% in the USA and 66% in Europe (113, 114). Despite the negative clinical outcomes associated with cervical cancer in Ethiopia, approximately 27.19 million women are estimated to be at risk, yet less than 1% of women aged 18-69 years undergo screening every 3 years, as recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2014) and adopted by Ethiopia (10, 74, 115). Effective, low resource screenings and treatment methods are recommended in the WHO guideline, which includes use of “see and treat” screening strategy with visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) as the primary screening method and cryotherapy as a treatment option (4).

Research to date indicates that the availability of screening services is inadequate to increase screening participation (14, 15, 116). Further some behaviors and beliefs may significantly impact the decisions of women to take preventive actions against cervical cancer (18). Much of the work associated with cancer screening has been informed by the Health Belief Model (HBM). The HBM focuses on preventing illness occurrence by encouraging health behaviors that avoid disease (18). Researchers have reported that diverse demographic, psychosocial, and health beliefs may influence cervical screening perceptions and, thus, indirectly influence health-related behavior (29). To improve screening participation among women, a better understanding of their health beliefs is essential (30).

There is considerable empirical support that HBM can explain and predict certain health behaviors, particularly cancer screening (29). For behavior change to occur such as obtaining cervical cancer screening, people must perceive a threat from their current behavioral patterns (perceived susceptibility and severity) and believe that change of a specific behavior will result in a valued outcome at an acceptable cost (perceived benefit). Individuals also must feel competent (self-efficacy) to overcome perceived barriers to taking action (117).

One of the most important limitations in both descriptive and intervention research regarding HBM has been variability in the measurement of central HBM constructs. Construct definitions need to be consistent with HBM theory as originally conceptualized, and measures need to be specific to the behavior being addressed and relevant to the population among whom they will be applied (118). The reliability of instruments may differ among populations for various reasons, including socio-demographic factors and cultural nuances.

Testing a modified version of the HBM scale modified for cervical cancer and VIA among women in Ethiopia will contribute to and expand knowledge in this area. A survey conducted among Ethiopian healthcare professionals revealed a significant deficit regarding cervical cancer, which could have implications for future screening programs since these providers would likely play a principal role in patient education and implementation of a cervical cancer screening program in Ethiopia (117). Cervical screening behaviors among healthcare professionals working at the College of Health Sciences in Ethiopia have not previously been examined using a modified version of Champion's HBM. Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate and validate the psychometric properties of the modified HBM scale for Cervical Cancer and VIA (42) questionnaire in female Ethiopian healthcare professionals.

## Methods

### Study design and settings

A cross-sectional study design was used to test the psychometric properties of the modified HBM for cervical cancer and VIA for application in female healthcare professionals working at the College of Health Sciences at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia in 2020.

### Sample size

The sampling frame for this study was based on participants' profile obtained from the office of human resource. Simple random sampling was used to select the participants' who fulfill the inclusion criteria being female healthcare professionals aged 21- 65 years, no prior history of cervical cancer, speaks English and employed full-time. For this survey students and non-health care professionals were excluded from the study. Samples were proportionally allocated based on the number of female staffs available in the units/ departments. Health care professionals who fulfil the inclusion criteria and willing to participate were approached face to face to fill out the semi structured questionnaires. For psychometric testing, there are a wide range of recommendations for adequately powered analysis ranging from 3 participants to 1 item to 5:1 (118). In the current study a 5:1 ratio of participants to items was used to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The modified HBM scale to be tested included 42 items, bringing the required number of participants to 210. Given the 24 items in the final modified version presented here the 5:1 ratio increased to 8.75:1.

The study received ethical approval from the Institutional Review Board of Addis Ababa University (protocol number, 017/20/-Nursing) before its initiation. Written informed consent was collected from all participants. All potential participants were informed about the purpose, method and potential benefits and knowledge gained from the study. Data for the psychometric evaluation were collected from June to August 2020.

#### Instruments

A structured questionnaire was used to collect socio-demographic data including age, marital status, work experience, profession, income and level of education. In addition, questions about prior cervical cancer screening practice were included.

#### **The modified HBM scale for cervical cancer and VIA use**

The HBM questionnaire used in the current study was modified from the HBM Scale for Cervical Cancer and Pap Smear Test reported by Guvenac (2011), which had been previously modified from Champion's HBM by inclusion of four additional question to the barrier construct (119). The self-efficacy construct was not tested by Guvenac (2011) and was considered to be a modified HBM scale. The following HBM constructs were included: susceptibility, seriousness, benefits/ motivation, barriers, health motivation, and self-efficacy. The modified HBM scale was further adapted for this study to refer to cervical cancer screening as VIA since the Pap smear is not widely used in Ethiopia. Visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) is visualization of woman's cervix to detect precursors of cervical cancer after application of acetic acid (ordinary table vinegar) on her cervix and it is a simple, low-cost, and efficient alternative to cytologic testing in low-resource areas (120). **The Health Belief Model Scale for Cervical cancer and VIA** has 42 items and six subscales, including benefit (8 items), barrier (18 items), seriousness (7 items), susceptibility (3 items), health motivation (3items), and for self-efficacy (3 items). All subscale items have the following five-point Likert-type response choices: strongly disagree (1 point), disagree (2 points), neutral (3 points), agree (4 points), and strongly agree (5 points). Permission to test the modified instrument and to adapt the scale for use by women in Ethiopia was obtained from Guvenac.

#### Data analysis and presentation

Data were screened for missing and outlier values and data entry errors using the frequency distributions of the variables and by inspection of entered data. Data were exported to SPSS version 25 software for analysis.

Construct validity of the scale was examined using EFA and principal axis factoring (PAF) extraction with oblimin rotation. The loading criterion was set as  $\leq 0.3$  and Bartlett's tests was used to analyze sampling adequacy. Reliability included internal consistency and was estimated

using Cronbach alpha coefficient values for the different domains of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha between 0.70–0.90 is considered to reflect adequate internal consistency(105).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used to quantify sufficiency of item correlation for performing factor analysis. The KMO index ranges from zero to one and, the minimum acceptable value is 0.60. Bartlett test of sphericity test was applied to assess the presence of correlations among variables significant value ( $p < 0.05$ ) indicates the appropriateness of EFA (106). Generally, the results indicated strong factorability and supported conducting an EFA.

Factor extraction analysis was conducted using PAF to determine the number of factors to retain, as follows: (a) using the Guttman- Kaiser greater-than-one rule which recommends that only those factors with eigenvalues  $\geq 1.0$  be retained; (b) using the Cattell scree test, which involves constructing 16 plots of extracted factors against their eigenvalues in descending order of magnitude; (c) by applying the Monte Carlo Parallel analysis rule, which compares factor eigenvalues to a set of eigenvalues generated from random data, and recommends retaining those eigenvalues that exceed the corresponding values from the random data; and, (d) by calculating the amount of total variance explained by the communality of each variable to determine the number of factors to be preserved (107). PAF was conducted together with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) which is often seen as producing more accurate results for research involving human behaviors. Regardless of which rotation method is used, the main objectives are to provide easier interpretation of results, and produce a solution that is more parsimonious (108) Items were deleted from the EFA if factor load was  $< 0.5$ , loaded on more than one factor, or not loaded on any factor (108).

In confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), model fitness was assessed by (a) over model fitness, using the Chi test  $\chi^2$  ( $p > 0.05$ ) and normed (Chi-square and df ratio)  $\chi^2$  (CMIN/df)  $\leq 3$ ; (b) incremental fitness with comparative fit index (CFI) and normed fit index (NFI)  $\geq 0.95$  and; (c) absolute fitness with, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted GFI (AGFI)  $\geq 0.80$ , root mean square residual (RMR)  $\leq 0.08$ , and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)  $\leq 0.06$  (109). The method used to potentially further refine /remove items from the instrument was with load  $< 0.3$  or, higher covariance, and estimates of the residual variance.

The criteria for convergent validity were as follows composite reliability  $\geq \pm 1.97$  ( $p < 0.05$ ); and average variance extracted (AVE)  $\geq 0.50$  (110).

Participant's demographic characteristics were summarized using descriptive statistics. Categorical variables are presented as percentages and frequencies.

## Inclusivity in global research

Additional information regarding the ethical, cultural, and scientific considerations specific to inclusivity in global research is included in the Supporting Information (S39 Checklist).

## Results

### Socio-demographic characteristics

We approached 210 female participants at the College of Health Sciences. Variables were checked for outliers based on the Mahalanobis distance and 16 cases with  $p < 0.001$  were excluded from the analysis resulting a final study sample of 194 female healthcare professionals (response rate 92.4 %) working at Addis Ababa University College of Health Sciences, with mean age  $33.14 \pm 7.2$  years. The majority of participants 150 (77.3 %) worked in the clinics and 102 (52.6 %) had < 5 years of work experience. The socio-demographic characteristics of participants are presented in Table 2.

*Table 2 Socio-demographic characteristics of health care professionals working in the CHS, AAU, Ethiopia, 2022 (n=194)*

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent %
Age	< 30 Years	101	52.1
	30- 34 years	40	20.6
	35- 39 Years	23	11.9
	≥ 40 Years	30	15.5
Marital Status	Single	76	39.2
	Married	108	55.7
	Others	10	5.2
Service Year	<5 years	102	52.6
	5-10 Years	51	26.3
	>10 years	41	21.1
Educational level	BSc	124	63.9
	Masters	44	22.7
	MD	20	10.3
	Others*	6	3.1
Monthly income (ETB)	≤6193	77	39.7
	6194 – 9056	71	36.6
	>9056	46	23.7
Professional stream	Clinical	150	77.3
	Academic	39	20.1
	Both	5	2.6
Professional title	Nurse	128	66.0
	Midwife	18	9.3
	Physicians	22	11.3
	Others**	26	13.4
Unit of work	Medical ward	29	14.9
	Surgical ward	22	11.3
	Oncology	21	10.8
	Outpatient	44	22.7
	Others***	78	40.2

**Note:** Others: Widowed and divorced; \*: Diploma and PhD; \*\*, anesthetist, pharmacy, laboratory, radiology; \*\*\* EPI, FP, etc

### **Participant screening practice**

The majority of the women healthcare professionals 138 (71.1%) enrolled in the study had not been previously screened for cervical cancer in their life time. Only 33 (17.0%) of the sample had been screened for cervical cancer in the past three years and the remaining 161(83.0 %) had not.

### **Validity and Reliability**

The KMO and Barlett tests were conducted done before the EFA. KMO should be 0.6 to continue with factor analysis. In more detail, KMO values with 0.90 are considered excellent; 0.80 good, 0.70 middle range; 0.60 mediocre; 0.50 acceptable; and  $\leq 0.50$  is unacceptable (121). The KMO measurement of sampling adequacy was 0.792, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ( $\chi^2 = 3189.95$ ,  $df = 861$ ,  $p < .001$ ) indicating the adequacy of the sample ( $n=194$ ) for EFA.

The Cronbach's alpha value for total items was 0.80 and the reliability coefficient values calculated for each sub dimension were 0.92 for benefit of VIA, 0.87 for perceived seriousness of cervical cancer, 0.87 for barrier (fear of negative outcome), 0.82 for self-efficacy, 0.76 for susceptibility to cervical cancer, and 0.80 for barriers (health system delivery).

### **Exploratory factor analysis**

Decisions regarding the number of extractable factors included in EFA were made using eigenvalues, factor loadings, and scree plot diagrams. Initial PAF showed the presence of nine factors with eigenvalues  $> 1$ . A review of the scree plot revealed a break before four factors. Supporting Catelli's scree test, Monete Carlo parallel analysis showed seven factors with eigenvalues surpassing the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size for ample EFA. Parallel analysis is a consistent and acceptable method used to precisely decide the number of factors (121). Of 42 items 30 were retained and total of twelve items were eliminated based on factor loading lower than 0.5, cross-loading, or a communality value  $< 0.40$ .

A key component analysis of the scale revealed that six factors had values  $> 1$ . Of the factors revealed by oblimin rotation, the first one explained 19.01 % of the total variance, while the second to sixth explained 12.594%, 10.018%, 6.526%, 4.789%, and 4.424% respectively; the variance explained by all six factors was 65%. Factor analysis identified that the first factor, benefits of VIA included 8 items; the second factor perceived seriousness of cervical cancer





### **Confirmatory factor analysis**

Based on EFA conducted out in the initial phase, a six-factor model of the modified HBM and VIA questionnaire was evaluated using a randomly allocated sample (N=194) by CFA. conducting confirmatory factor analysis with 30 items, which offered valuable evidence about scale stability. We removed a total of 4 items that showed higher covariance in the standardized residual covariance matrices during CFA; item 1 from the perceived benefit factor, item 22 from perceived barrier towards health delivery, item 30 from perceived seriousness and item 39 from perceived self-efficacy. The factor scores for each construct were positively correlated with one another. Each item of the construct was correlated expressively at  $\geq 0.5$  except for two items (item 23 and 38). EFA was run again and two items were loaded  $< 0.5$ ; 0.453 and 0.449 for items 23 and 38, respectively. Removing the item improved the model fit. For the study population, item to factor correlation analysis showed that the modified version of HBM with 24 items was a valid model.

The maximum likelihood ratio was used to estimate model fitness and the  $\chi^2$  test was used as a measure of fit between the sample covariance and fitted covariance matrices,  $\chi^2 = 472.336$ ,  $df = 284$  ( $p > 0.05$ ), normed  $\chi^2$  ( $472.336/284$ ) = 1.663 which is  $\leq 3$ . The GFI was 0.839, and AGFI 0.803, both of which were acceptable  $\geq 0.80$ .

In addition to the  $X^2$  test, other fit indices were used to evaluate model fitness, including the CFI = 0.927 and NFI = 0.833 ( $\geq 0.90$ ), RMR=0.060 ( $\leq 0.08$ ) and RMSEA=0.059 ( $\leq 0.06$ ).

These data all demonstrate an acceptable model fit, except for the NIF. All indices were within limits and with significant fit. Generally, tests of the goodness-of-fit of the model were conducted, as summarized by Gaskin, J. & Lim, J. (2016), in the, "Model Fit Measures," AMOS Plugin, and indicated an excellent model fit (122) in Table 5 and Fig 2.

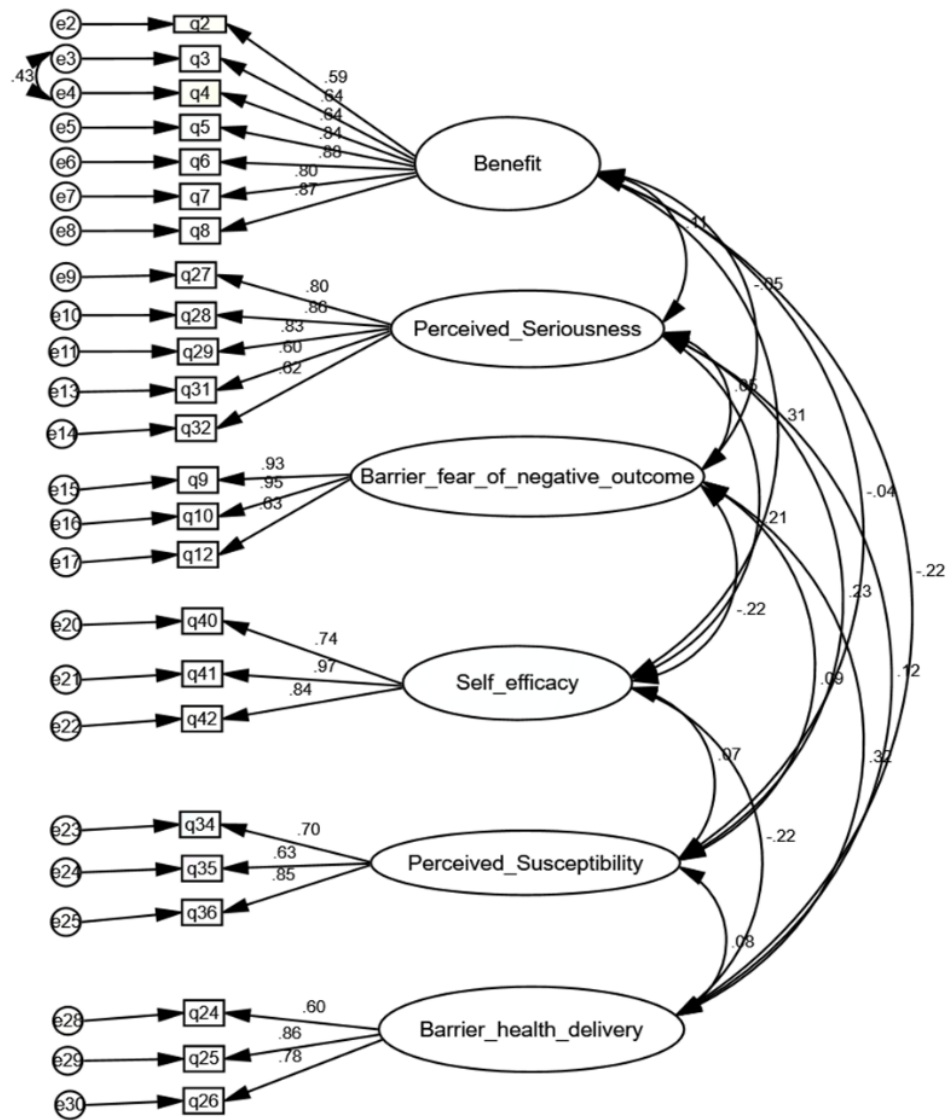


Figure 2 Six-factor structure of modified HBM for cervical cancer and VIA among health care professionals working in the CHS, AAU, Ethiopia 2022 (n=194)

*Table 5* Goodness fit indices of the modified HBM for cervical cancer and VIA among health care professionals, working in the CHS, AAU, Ethiopia, 2022 (n=194)

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	396.584	--	--
DF	236.000	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.680	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.937	>0.95	Acceptable
SRMR	0.059	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.059	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	0.067	>0.05	Excellent

**Note:** CMIN: Chi-square; DF: Degree of freedom; CFI: comparative fit index; SRMR: standardized root mean square; RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation

### Discussion

The HBM has been used in many studies to create measurement tools to identify factors that influence health behaviours across various health conditions and populations. In this study, we evaluated the validity and reliability of a modified HBM for cervical cancer and screening using VIA among female healthcare professionals employed in a large tertiary academic health sciences center. CFA, found that 24 items loaded on six factors. The results revealed that this instrument is suitable to evaluate beliefs regarding cervical cancer screening for a sample of Ethiopian healthcare professionals. Other studies have evaluated the psychometric properties of HBM-related measures associated with HPV vaccination and screening using either exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses to evaluate the factor structures underlying HBM (119). Most studies retained between 4 and 5 factors which is very close to the findings of the present study in which 6 factors were retained and discrepant with one other study, which yielded a 10-factor structure (123).

The revision of the original 42-item instrument presented here resulted in a shorter yet equally comprehensive basis for measuring HBM constructs. Although the initial 42-item instrument had adequate psychometric properties, the conciseness of the revised version translates into a reduced respondent burden, which may help to enhance survey completion rates in clinical settings. In this case, the instrument was reduced by 18-items (42.9 %) with apparently minimal loss of information, if any; however, validation of the reduced instrument in different samples is still necessary and should be the focus of future work.

A few studies have used either exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses to evaluate the factor structures underlying HBM. The subscale reliabilities for these studies varied considerably. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.55 in Marlow et al. (2009) to 0.96 in Kahn et al. (2008) and the value for all subscales in this study was 0.806 which is within this range (124, 125) . The internal consistency and reliability of the shortened version of the scale remained strong. The lowest alpha value (0.7) was for susceptibility to cervical cancer, which had only three items. Other psychometric studies of health motivation sub scales have also reported lower reliability using 3-items (119). The number of items in a subscale has an impact on Cronbach's alpha. Thus, the fact that the lowest alpha was > 0.70 for a subscale with three items is promising, as lower item burden is associated with higher participation compliance. Thus, our data suggest that the reliability of the revised HBM scale for cervical cancer and VIA is acceptable and warrant further testing in other samples of Ethiopian women.

Based on the results of EFA, all questions were clustered in the subscales: benefit of VIA, perceived seriousness of cervical cancer, barrier to fear of negative outcome and health delivery, self-efficacy, susceptibility to cervical cancer and barriers to health delivery subscales. All subscale questions had an acceptable load factor, separately loaded on the related factor. For example, all questions of the self-efficacy scale were loaded on one factor, similar to a method used by authors of a study on the Iranian version of Champion's Revised Health Belief Model Scale for Breast Cancer screening. Decision-making and health behaviour could be influenced by fear theory where it interacts with other components of the HBM to promote healthy behaviour.

According to the results of EFA, three items of the health motivation subscale, namely; question 37, "I eat well-balanced meals for my health; question 38, "I exercise at least three times a week for my health; and question 39, "I have regular health check-ups even when I am not sick, question 39". Question 37 was unsatisfactory among healthcare providers, consistent with the results of a study of Iranian female students. The remaining two questions were loaded to the self-efficacy factor. Contrary to some previous findings, all items related to the health motivation subscale were loaded on one factor (126).

Under the construct for barrier variables like 'It is difficult to get an appointment for VIA'; so, creating modalities to have short waiting list in the clinicals could be a solution to improve screening practice in the clinical area and enhance early detection to minimize cancer related deaths. As the same time this finding implies for researchers to work on the feasibility of the different screening techniques for cervical cancer like self-testing kits and its efficacy as our

finding revealed <sup>1</sup> 'I would be ashamed to lie on a gynecologic examination table and show my private parts to have a VIA' researchers may be interested to look in the feasibility, acceptability of the different screening techniques to optimize screening utilization in the general population the case of Ethiopian women.

Although, there was a difference from the original HBM 42 in the number of items and factor structure, CFA was conducted to assess whether the six -factor EFA measurement was appropriate for the study population. CFA revealed that each item had acceptable loading with its factor. All factors had a good inter-factor correlation and measured similar concepts with acceptable model fit indices.

### **Study strengths and limitation**

A strength of the study was the ability to validate a culturally appropriate modified version of the cervical cancer screening and VIA HBM tool that may be used for future studies among Ethiopian women. There were also several limitations of this study. Due to of the cross-sectional nature of the data used, the stability of the initial and revised dimension scores over time were not examined. Further, data for the present instrument revision were provided by a sample from a specific population, healthcare professionals; hence, the generalizability of the HBM instrument should be examined in other populations of women in Ethiopia, such as those from rural areas and women who are less educated.

### **Conclusion and recommendations**

In conclusion, the revision of the 42-item adapted version of the HBM for VIA instrument provided a validated and more parsimonious short- form instrument (24-items) that, in the available sample of health care professionals, appeared to retain the psychometric properties of the original instrument. Directions for future research include testing the instrument in other populations of Ethiopian women. In addition, future studies may consider adapting the modified HBM scale for VIA to examine perception towards cervical cancer and possible barriers that influences screening behaviours. Assessing the perceptions of women about screening and perhaps helping to evaluate interventions to increase screening in LMICs, such as Ethiopia. Future studies comparing the original 42-item and updated 24 items tool with external measures to support external validity of each construct and subscale will be beneficial and provide greater understanding of the psychometric properties of the tool.

## Chapter III

### Article 2: Intention to screen for cervical cancer and factors associated among female healthcare professionals using the trans-theoretical model: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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#### Abstract

**Background:** Healthcare providers can serve as role models to facilitate a supportive environment that encourages women to utilize screening for cervical cancer. Equally important is that being a female healthcare professional does not prevent the risk of cervical cancer. Therefore, this study aims to assess the intention of screening with visual inspection of acetic acid (VIA) and its determinants among female healthcare professionals (HCPs), guided by the trans-theoretical model (TTM) of stages of behavior change.

**Method:** A cross-sectional study design was used to test readiness for cervical screening among selected female HCPs. A structured, self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data. The analysis included descriptive statistics and logistic regression.

**Result:** Four hundred sixty female HCPs with a mean age of M=33.8, +5 years participated. The intention to participate in cervical cancer screening was 44.1%. Over (half 52% of the participants) had poor knowledge of cervical cancer and screening. Regarding the TTM stages of change, 46.5% of participants indicated being in the pre-contemplation phase, suggesting they had never a VIA screen and had no intention of being screened within the next six months. In the final logistic regression model, four factors, including age, being screened in the past three years, taking care of patients with cervical cancer, and having good to moderate knowledge of cervical cancer and screening, were statistically significant, with large odds ratios for their association with intention to screen.

**Conclusions:** Most of the participants were in the pre-contemplation phase, and the limited knowledge health workers had about cervical cancer screening is worrisome. Intervening in the factors that affect intention for screening is vital to reducing barriers to cervical screening among female healthcare workers as well as the broader female population in Ethiopia. Providing cancer screening guidelines to all HCPs, regardless of their specialty, could be a key factor in lessening the burden of cervical cancer.

**Keyword:** Intention, trans-theoretical model, health care professionals, visual inspection with acetic acid

## Introduction

Cervical cancer is a global health concern (127). Worldwide, cervical cancer ranks as the fourth most common malignancy in women, with more than half a million women diagnosed annually and contributing to over 300,000 yearly deaths (128, 129). Approximately 85% of the worldwide deaths from cervical cancer occurs in developing countries, and the death rate is 18 times higher in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) compared with developed countries (129). There are an estimated 7,000 new cases of cervical cancer in Ethiopia annually; with nearly 5,000 deaths reported (130).

Detection of cervical cancer at an early stage is associated with excellent survival but most women in developing countries present with advanced and often untreatable disease, with very low survival rates (131). The disease is largely preventable if regular screening is performed. Regular screening is the single most important public health strategy to reduce cervical cancer incidence and subsequent mortality (12). Approximately 90% of cervical cancers occur in LMICs that lack organized screening programs. In high-income countries, cervical cancer incidence and mortality have been reduced by 50% over the past 30 years since the introduction of formal screening programs (128). Despite the negative clinical outcomes associated with cervical cancer in Ethiopia, approximately 27.19 million women are estimated to be at risk. Less than 1% of women between the ages of 18-69 years receive the recommended screening every 3 years as recommended by WHO (2014) and adopted by Ethiopia (10, 74, 115). Effective, low resource screenings and treatment methods are recommended in the WHO guideline which includes using a “see and treat” screening strategy with visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA) as the primary screening method and cryotherapy as a treatment option (4).

Although the importance and effectiveness of cervical cancer prevention with screening is well established the underlying reasons explain why the majority of women are not utilizing available screening services have not been well described. Low levels of awareness and poor knowledge coupled with a lack of available cervical cancer screening (CCS) services are likely responsible for the very small number of women being screened (115).

The low prevalence of early cervical cancer screening and limited access to its treatments are largely attributed to differences in diagnosis and subsequent mortality from the disease in low-income countries. Given the poor screening status of women in Ethiopia, calls for addressing these missed opportunities for CCS have been made by responsible stakeholders. Healthcare workers are at the core of efforts to improve screening uptakes. Evidence demonstrates that health care provider recommendation is a key driver of CCS uptake especially in situations where an individual’s motivation may be inadequate (132). Certainly, health care providers as

role models in healthcare system are expected to facilitate a supportive environment that encourages women to utilize screening.

Research to date indicates that the availability of screening services alone is inadequate to increase screening participation (74, 133). From a social cognitive perspective, an important implication is that different cognitions may be important at different stages in promoting health behaviours (134). Several theoretical perspectives could be used to explore the determinants of the healthcare professionals' behaviours. Consequently, it would be useful to obtain a better understanding of the individual mechanisms of the adoption of new behaviours from social cognitive theories (135). Some behaviours and beliefs may have a significant impact on the females' decision to take preventive actions against cervical cancer (13). Intentions are states in which the person is set to act. Being in the intention state takes one closer to the health behaviour action (136). To address intention which changes with time and to avoid subjectivity we used the trans-theoretical model to determine the stages of change and intention of cervical cancer screening with visual inspection using acetic acid (VIA). The trans-theoretical model (TTM) of behaviour change was used to address the stages of readiness to practice regular cervical screening among female healthcare workers in Ethiopia (19).

The stages of change theory is one of the most important theoretical frameworks that is useful in assessing an individual's readiness to perform a variety of health behaviours, including screening (137). Research demonstrates that intention was a valid proxy measure for behaviour among clinicians (i.e., physicians, nurses, pharmacists, and other health workers) (135). Women can be described along a series of stages of readiness to practice regular VIA test screening: (a) pre-contemplation: never had a VIA test and no intention to have one within the next 6 months; (b) contemplation: never had a VIA test but intends to have one within the next 6 months; (c) preparation: never had a VIA test but intends to have one within the month; (d) action: had one VIA test in the past year and intends to continue getting regular VIA tests; (e) maintenance: had regular VIA tests and intends to continue to do so; (f) relapse risk: on schedule, but no intention to get one in the future; and (g) relapse: had VIA tests in the past, none in the last 3 years, and does not intend to get one(19).

Health behaviour change is associated with changes in self-beliefs and self-regulatory skills (138). First, in terms of behavioural intentions, research has shown consistently that the intention to perform a behaviour can be translated into actual behaviour. For example, research indicates the intention to attend for cervical or breast screening activities predicts actual attendance (138). Also, understanding the competing and motivating factors affecting the CCS behaviour among women in the context of Ethiopia helps to enhance the screening and

treatment efforts. Cervical screening among female healthcare professionals guided by the TTM has not been previously examined in Ethiopia. Researching the intention, and looking into pre-existing factors towards intention of screening among health care professionals at Addis Ababa University College of Health Sciences will contribute to the existing knowledge and bridge the gap to low cervical screening participation and hopefully lead to decrease morbidity and mortality of the problem. Also, for effective screening and prophylaxis, it is of utmost importance to understand the intention of the healthcare staffs as they constitute an important source for communicating health-related information.

## Methods

### Study setting

The study took place at the College of Health Sciences (CHS), Addis Ababa University. In the college there were 3017 permanently employed staff with 913 academicians (683 male and 230 female), 1204 hospital health staffs (457 male and 747 female) and 900 administrative staffs. The setting was selected as it is the only teaching and health service provision area inclusive with the greatest healthcare professionals to better meet the aim of the study.

### Study design

An institutional based cross-sectional study design was used to describe the intention of cervical cancer screening among health care professionals working at the CHS, Addis Ababa University using the stages of change described in the trans-theoretical model and to determine the pre-existing factors affecting the intention of cervical cancer screening.

### Source and study population

All health care professionals working in the CHS of AAU were source populations and HCP aged 30years and above were the study populations.

### Sampling techniques and sample size estimation

The sampling frame for this study was based on participants' profile obtained from the office of human resource. Samples were proportionally allocated based on the number of female staffs available in the units/ departments. Health care professionals who fulfil the inclusion criteria were approached face to face and also using online platforms of the CHS to fill out questionnaires; those available and willing filled out the self-administered questionnaire. Sample size was determined using Epi INFO STAT Calc. sample calculation for population survey; by considering the expected frequency of 25%obtained prevalence of cervical cancer screening practice from a study on cervical cancer screening knowledge and barriers among women in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (116). Assuming population size 977, 3% marginal error (d),

95% confidence interval, hence n= 440. The total sample size by adding 10% non-response rate was n = 484. A total sample of 484 female healthcare professionals 30 years of age and older working at Addis Ababa University- CHS were included in this study. Students and non-health care professionals working at the study setting were excluded from this study. Data were collected from December 2020 to January 2021.

#### Instrumentation

A structured self-administered instrument was used to collect data from participants'; the instrument was adapted from previous studies. It contained questions about:

#### Data Processing and Analysis

Data were entered and cleaned using Epi Data software version 3.1 and exported to SPSS version 25 for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations and frequencies were calculated. Contributions of the predictors of the outcome variable intent to screen for cervical cancer were examined by performing a logistic regression analysis. Multicollinearity was checked using tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Variables with p-value < 0.2 during the bivariate analysis considering each predictor one at a time were included in the final model. Multiple logistic regression analysis was computed to consider the conditional effects of factors. Crude odds ratios (COR) were computed for each predictor one at a time for the outcome. Adjusted odds ratio (AOR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were constructed to measure the strength of association between the intent to screen for cervical cancer and the selected predictors combined together in the final logistic regression model. For all statistical tests, p-value  $\leq 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

#### Ethical consideration

The study received ethical approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Addis Ababa University with a protocol number 017/20/Nursing before participants were approached or data collected. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants and confidentiality of information was maintained.

## Results

### **Socio-demographic characteristics**

A total of 484 questionnaires were distributed to study participants. Twenty-four participants failed to return their questionnaire and were excluded from the study. This resulted in a study population of 460 female health care professionals with a response rate of 95% working at Addis Ababa University, CHS. The mean age  $M=33.8, \pm 5.3$  years. Majority of the participants were nurses 281 (61.1%) and 271 (58.9%) had less than 5 years of work experience as shown in Table 6.

### **Reproductive health history, lifestyle and clinical practice of respondents**

The mean age of sexual intercourse was  $M= 21.75, 95\% \text{ CI } [21.26, 22.24]$ . Hundred (21.7%) of the participants had multiple sexual partners. Approximately 33.7% (155), of the study participants have ever given birth and ever use of condom was 68.3% (314). Regarding lifestyle half of the respondents 230(50%) ever used alcohol. In relation to clinical characteristics only 110(23.9%) participants had been ever screened for CC and among these 74(67.3%) had received CC screening in the past three years as shown in Table 6.



### **Knowledge of cervical cancer and screening**

The majority 275(59.8%) of the respondents did not regard “Visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA)” as one of the screening methods of cervical cancer. Regard to screening frequency, the majority 357 (77.6%) and 454 (98.7%) of the participants mis-identified to be “every year” and “every 10 years” respectively. Health care professionals in this study had a mean knowledge of  $M=15.63$ ,  $+SD 3.14$ , out of a possible range of 0 to 28. Based on knowledge scores, 239(52%) of the respondents had poor knowledge regard to cervical cancer and screening. The source of information regarding cervical cancer for more than three quarters of the respondents 363 (78.7%) was regular course work and 64 (13.9%) participated in additional trainings refer to Table 7 and Figure 3.

















































































































































































































































































